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ABSTRACT

An overview of values education is outlined. The semantic problems relating to the language of values/character education are identified, and some of the extant philosophical postures and controversies are sketched. Semantic issues relate to the interrelationships among the terms "values," "morals," and "ethics" as well as to the close alliance of values to attitudes, interests, and personality. A. H. Maslow and B. F. Skinner have provided important insights for the teaching of values education from the points of view of the research psychologist and behavioral psychologist, respectively. The leading controversy surrounding values teaching concerns whether the traditional American nationalistic values should be taught directly or indirectly. Much important work has been done in the field of values clarification, the first models of which were pioneered by L. Raths et al. The values analysis model is an ancient-modern structured approach grounded in argumentation theory and formal debate practice. General character education models can be categorized into hard-line and soft-line strategies. Several strategies have been developed for specific goals, for example, diminishing delinquency, preventing suicides and homicides, and dispelling disruptive behavior. Eighteen tools for measuring values are listed; 14 of these are briefly described. Additionally, 43 general references and 31 selected ERIC documents are listed. (TJH)

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

72ND ANNUAL CONVENTION

ANAHEIM, CALIFORNIA

THE PRINCIPAL: CARING FOR KIDS = CARING FOR THE FUTURE

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CLAIRE C. IRWIN

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

SESSION TITLE: WHAT RESEARCH TELLS THE PRINCIPAL ABOUT THE TEACHING OF VALUES

DATE: MARCH 5, 1988

TWO SESSIONS: 2:00 PM - 2:50 PM and 3:00 PM - 3:50 PM

SPEAKER: DR. CLAIRE C. IRWIN, PROFESSOR
EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION AND RESEARCH
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY
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TM012525

NASSP 71st ANNUAL CONVENTION - SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

Session Title: What Research Tells the Principal About Exemplary Seconday and Middle Schools. Speaker: Dr. Claire C. Irwin, Professor, Educational Evaluation and Research, College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan 48202. Date: Saturday, February 7, 1987.

ABSTRACT (Journalistic Summary)

Exemplary secondary and middle schools are distinguished by the leadership capabilities of principals, commitments of teachers, the motivation and academic achievement of students, participation of parents in decision-making processes , and the direct involvement of the community. More than 575 research documents constituted the data base for this report.

The major characteristics of meritorious schools were clustered into the following categories: (1) national criteria for outstanding secondary and middle schools; (2) hallmarks of successful principals; (3) hallmarks of exemplary teachers; (4) hallmarks of successful students; (5) parental involvement; and, (6) community collaboration.

Successful principals were flexible in leadership styles; subscribed to clearly articulated goals; were sensitive to the emergent needs of students and staff; were great communicators; liked their jobs; had a sense of humor; conducted regular, global evaluations of the various dimensions of school operations; informed the community; were active in instructional supervision, assessment of teacher performance, and curriculum development; were visible and ubiquitous in monitoring student achievement and behavior; recognized and rewarded good teaching pe ormance.

Successful teachers tended to have more degrees and post-degree academic credit hours; thought of themselves as learners; attended professional meetings and gave presentations; used professional journals in their teaching; were enthusiastic; encouraged students to demonstrate critical and high order thinking skills; identified individual student differences; promoted controlled skepticism in the classroom; held high expectations for all students; encouraged students to participate in community action programs related to course work; felt comfortable and prepared to teach in their respective disciplines.

Successful students in exemplary schools had excellent attendance; understood the goals of the school; had a sense of "pride" in the school; were optimistic; forward-looking; had tentatively formulated future carreer plans; had good scores on standardized and teacher made tests; were creative in academic and extracurricular pursuits; enjoyed independent research tasks; were active in school-community affairs and events; were marked by motivation, mastery, and memory.

Parents connected with successful schools were active in many facets of school operations. Parents who were informed of the purposes and designs of school programs tended to look at outcomes more favorably. Parents who were drawn into classroom work through participation in homework projects were more pleased with school efforts. Informal hand-written notes from the principal as well as more formal communications were appreciated. High on the parent satisfaction list was perception of the school environment as a "clean, orderly, well-lighted place".

Community collaboration, one of the features of exemplary schools, can be achieved by developing a pool of human resources and expertise from the community people who can be invited to share experiences and knowledge with students in the classroom on a guest lecturer basis. Aggressive public relations will tell the story of the school to the public through modern media techniques. Community service can be activated as a two-way street, whereby community people are invited into the school, and conversely, students and teachers actively participate in civic activities, entertainments, musical programs, or sports events. Strong linkage to the community sets exemplary schools apart.

WHAT RESEARCH TELLS THE PRINCIPAL ABOUT
THE TEACHING OF VALUES

INTRODUCTION

> Traditional agents of character education have been weakened by the fluidity and heterogeneity of American Society.
> ---Perry London, Phi Delta Kappan, May, 1987

During the 1980's Americans have become acutely aware of the apparent disintegration of the human and national values once treasured. The ubiquitous media have laid bare the unsavory exploits of those in power positions. The catalogue, colored with dishonesty, avarice, and hypocrisy, is long: the Iran-Contra debacle, Watergate before that, the Marines in Moscow, foreign policy advisers gone astray, insider trading on Wall Street, tax evasion, white collar crime, the destruction of the environment, plagiarism in politics. Many of America's visible leaders have not been able to pass the character test. Little remains but tarnished role models for the Youth of the Country. There appears to be a "values vacuum" in modern society. To counteract the devastating decay, there seems to be a re-evaluation and return to the old-fashioned concept of character education in the schools.

According to Albert Nissman, "society's values are perverted because these place esteem on celebrities and political puppets and not necessarily upon philosophers, artists, researchers, and minority leaders who make solid contributions to the well-being of society". Nissman argues that the American educational system must emphasize values in education and the role of the schools in promoting proper values which he defines as the "intrinsic regard people have for other people, ideas, attitudes, and modes of behavior". He points out that values rest upon philosophical bases and require the mature and

intellectual choice of the beholder. Nissman speaks for three values: authenticity (self-actualization), literacy (learning and cultivation), and self-accountability (responsibility for one's own deeds).

What can educators do to deal with apparent moral disarray facing today's youngsters as they prepare for leadership roles in tomorrow's world? There is no golden way. Suggestions, not prescriptions are in order. First, educators must realistically recognize the basic dichotomy which exists between societal and personal values. Second, the philosophical and practical approaches of important theoreticians can be examined for ideas and roadmaps. Third, existing programs and instrumentation can be consulted and appraised as potentially valuable tools for evaluating student value structures. Fourth, on the basis of value sets identified, classroom direction or re-direction may be possible within the educational process.

The purposes of this paper are: 1) to identify certain semantic problems relating to the language of values/character education; 2) to sketch some of the philosophical postures and controversies extant; 3) to examine selected approaches to the teaching of values; (4) to review some of the tools designed to measure values.

SEMANTICS

To approach the subject of values is to face two difficult semantic problems. The first relates to the inter-relationship of the terms "values", "morals", and "ethics". The second relates to the close alliance of "values" to "attitudes", "interests", and "personality". While universal agreement among educators, psychologists, and social psychologists cannot be achieved, operational constructs serve clarification and can lay the groundwork for action. With respect to

the first problem what is prized or held in high esteem (values) implies standards of appropriate human behavior (morals) compatible with principles (ethics) governing what is good for the person and for the society to which the individual belongs. With respect to the second problem, "values" are inextricably linked to "attitudes" (feelings or emotions toward a fact or state), "interests" (desired participation), and "personality" (the totality of an individual's behavioral and emotional tendencies).

When relating values to learning, there is no clear route, but rather a spill-over among and between the Cognitive, Affective, and Psycho-Motor Domains as defined by Benjamin Bloom.

The easy way out is to subscribe to a value-neutral posture to accommodate a diverse society. But this is not good enough, not if "our children are the future".

THEORETICIANS: MASLOW AND SKINNER

A famous philosopher once said "there is nothing more practical than a good theory". Abraham Maslow and B. F. Skinner have provided important thoughtful underpinnings to values issues in education.

As a research psychologist, Maslow conducted his own quest for human values in a scientific mode. Basically, he viewed the term "values" as a catalogue of different ways in which different people viewed themselves and the good life. Maslow actually created a new language for dealing with his deep analysis of human nature. "Peak experiences" are the best moments for human beings, the happiest moments of life producing the greatest joy. Out of his research, he derived a list of human values: truth, beauty, wholeness, dichotomy-transcendence, aliveness-process, uniqueness, perfection, necessity, completion,

justice, order, effortlessness, playfulness, and simplicity. Maslow argued that the serious thinkers have agreed that the best people in their best moments under the best conditions subscribe to this litany of values and therefore are "self-actualized". He further suggested that these values were appropriate goals for formal and informal education. Conversely, Maslow described "valuelessness" as "anomie, amorality, anhedonia, rootlessness, emptiness, hopelessness, and the lack of something to believe in and be devoted to".

B.F. Skinner, preeminently a behavioral psychologist and social engineer, views values as those actions which are positively re-enforced and therefore called "good", whereas anti-values are behaviors, negatively re-enforced. Behavior , according to Skinner, is usually called "right" or "wrong" with respect to other contingencies, natural or social, and the ensuing consequences. Skinner, furthermore, looks upon ethical and moral judgments as the practices of the group in which the person lives. To Skinner, freedom and dignity are viewed as the defense of the autonomous person, as revisions of contingencies. What is good for human beings is a question about re-enforcers and the intensification of contingencies. The educational implications, must be restored and the environment altered if there is to be a re-commitment to values once highly prized.

CONTROVERSY AND EMERGING MODELS FOR THE TEACHING OF VALUES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The leading controversy surrounding values teaching is whether the traditional American nationalistic values should be taught directly or indirectly. Advocates of the Moral Majority would argue for the first position; modern educational philosophers and school practitioners would probably support the latter position. Teaching values directly, using a

"common core" of moral imperatives may lead to indoctrination which is anathema in a pluralistic society. Teaching values indirectly may lead to extreme relativism. There is a middle position which recommends that American schooling should aim for an ethical balance between these divergent positions.

An ambitious effort to bridge this gap was brought to fruition in the State of Maryland, where after due process, the Governor appointed a Values Education Commission charged with the responsibility of evaluating, state-wide, programs in values and morals and to formulate recommendations which would reinforce traditional values and develop "high standards of moral and ethical conduct in personal and public life", within the limits of constitutionality which demands separation of religious and secular goals. The work of the Commission has been extensive, but suffice it to say that a list of ten Character Objectives and eight Citizenship Objectives, although somewhat overlapping, were formulated and agreed upon by Commission members. Schools in the State were assessed in terms of these criteria. Specifically, the Character Objectives were: personal integrity, sense of duty, self-esteem, respect for the rights of all, right of others to voice competing opinions, compassion and concern for others, tolerance of justice for others, pride in one's work and the work of others, respect for property, and the courage to express one's convictions. The Citizenship Objectives were: patriotism, the responsibilities of citizens in a democracy, understanding other societies, support of the U.S. Constitution, respect for the legal authority of local, state, and federal agencies, observance of the separation of powers in a democracy,

faith in an independent legal system, and commitment to preserve and defend the United States.

In this Maryland study, the Commission found that the principal and other building administrators were the most important factors in successful values education programs. When administrators exhibited moral courage to demonstrate that values goals were important, teachers were motivated to build such goals into the curriculum. In essence the principal through dedication, knowledge, and role modeling was pivotal in school-wide commitment to character and values education, and in the promotion of a climate amenable to instilling ethical values in youth without indoctrination or the invasion of student privacy.

One of the very early studies in Character Education was done by Hartshorne and May in the late twenties and early thirties. The investigators administered 170,000 tests to 11,000 pupils (aged from 11 to 16) in an effort to measure moral commitment and actual behavior in the classroom. They reported no significantly positive or consistent correlations between the amount of moral instruction and the students' actual honesty and obedience in the classroom. Their studies also pointed up the issue of selecting values to be taught. Critics have said that this landmark study had a depressing effect on the process of moral development and on future attempts to measure the effects of values education. In the 1940's and 1950's the crisis in student values was the focus of a great deal of attention . The American Council's Committee on Religion and Education as well as the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association agreed that schools had some responsibility for building values in the Youth of America, but the nagging question of separation of religion from morality remained as a

dilemma. Some investigators believe that the long tradition of morality may be bound up in religion but not integral to it.

Even today, the long-range effects of student participation in values-oriented courses have yet to be determined. In a limited study of the results of human relations studies on high school students' values, as reported in the NASSP BULLETIN (February, 1986), Wilson and Little found no significant changes as a consequence of the course, and demonstrated, unhappily, that adolescents' values largely reflect those of their parents. Obviously, much more research, with larger samples needs to be done.

As a result of concern and controversy, major models for the teaching of values have been developed in the last twenty years in American universities and research institutes. Those models to be discussed are: 1) Values Clarification Models; 2) Kohlberg's Model of Moral Development; 3) Character Education Models, and 4) Values Analysis.

VALUES CLARIFICATION MODELS

Values Clarification techniques can be attributed to the work of Louis Raths and Associates Merrill Harmin and Sidney Simon in the late 1950's. Stages of valuing are postulated and are intended for the teacher to use in helping students to make free choices while being rigidly flexible to alternative but feasible possibilities. The Raths' approach is process oriented. The three basic processes are choosing, prizing, acting. Choosing must be done freely from alternatives, after considered evaluation of the consequences; Prizing means cherishing and being satisfied with the choice and willing to affirm the choice openly; Acting means doing something with choice, and repeating the process in

everyday life patterns. The results of the valuing process are called "values". Raths, in his theory, goes on to identify value indicators since everything cannot be called "values". These indicators are the bedrock from which values develop. Key value indicators are: goals and purposes, aspirations, attitudes, interests, feelings, beliefs and convictions, activities, worries, problems, and obstacles. The Raths Model emphasizes the personal nature of values, a process which can be taught in the classroom. The specific aims of values clarification are to help people become more purposeful and productive by sharpening their critical thinking skills and to make them less vulnerable to bandwagon tactics. Raths recognized that automation, technological advances, working parents or single parent homes with family members going their separate ways have led to a values confusion. There are too many alternatives and too many anti-value role models. The daily impact of world-wide disasters, and scoundrels in the spotlight add to the bewilderment. The Raths' approach is a way to nurture acceptable and consistent sets of personal values within the context of national goals.

Values Clarification strategies are many. Howard Kirchenbaum developed some 79 varied classroom strategies--one-time exercises or those that can be used repeatedly to make students aware of their own values and be willing to affirm these publicly. Values voting, rank-ordering, values sheets, role-playing, and interviews have been widely used in clarification exercises. Any number of studies have been conducted with conclusions that would seem to indicate that after values clarification experiences, students reported more favorable attitudes toward themselves, and were better behaved in the classroom. One of the key factors of values clarification is that the teacher remain

unobtrusive, permitting students to express themselves freely and openly.

The criticisms of values clarification techniques are many. For example, one critic has noted that the whole methodology is based upon the values of its creators and therefore is not value-free. Values clarification advocates claim that values are personal, situational, individually derived, and relative. This may result in a listing of values that are indeed undesirable. In the affirmation process, students may be laid open to undue amounts of peer pressure and an invasion of their privacy. The charge of extreme ethical relativism has often been laid at the door of these strategies.

Robert Caldwell, one of the more vocal critics of Values Clarification, refers to it as a form of "doublespeak" based upon flawed thinking and built upon a thesis of moral subjectivity where there are no right or wrong answers. Caldwell says it is a way of avoiding moral issues, and lacks mastery of the conceptual structure of morality.

KOHLBERG'S COGNITIVE THEORY AND MODEL OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

The late Lawrence Kohlberg, Harvard University, developed a theory of moral development. Kohlberg believed that moral development is a natural process that teachers can foster in children. He did not believe in teaching values directly nor in values clarification techniques. Rather, he postulated six stages of moral development:

Stage 1: Obedience and Punishment --the child obeys out of fear, not respect for values

Stage 2: Back-scratching --the child engages in reciprocity--the "morality of the market-place"--expects rewards for favors

Stage 3: Approval of others --the child acts in conformity with the expectations of peer groups and parents; strives for good relationships

Stage 4: Law and Order --doing one's duty, rules take precedence over personal values, subscribes to fair play for all

Stage 5: Social/legalistic contracts --looks to the rights of the individual as agreed upon by society

Stage 6: Over-riding or general principles --the individual makes decisions based upon conscience compatible with self-selected principles of justice; will contest the laws of society if these conflict with his own

Some critics charge that the Kohlberg Model can be used to undermine traditional moral assumptions and hence is somewhat responsible for the "Me Generation" syndrome.

CHARACTER EDUCATION MODELS

Secretary of Education William Bennett has made Character Education one of his priorities. In the 19th Annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools (September, 1987), respondents were asked whether they thought courses on personal values and ethical behavior should be taught in the public schools or left to the home and the churches. Forty-three percent of the national totals said that such courses should be taught in the schools. When asked whether it would be possible to develop character education courses that would be acceptable to most of the people in their respective communities, sixty-two percent of the national totals thought this would be possible. A third question asked was whether students whose parents objected to the content of such courses should be excused from such classes. Fifty-two percent of the national sample thought that students should be excused.

There are many Character Education Models. These vary greatly in goals and process. There are hard-line and soft-line strategies. Hard-line approaches emphasize absolute, immutable principles of right and wrong. The time-honored attributes of truth, honesty, obedience, good

citizenship, courage, honor, and integrity are stressed in the interests of shaping student conduct. Soft-line approaches stress development in the affective domain with emphasis upon self-esteem, altruistic attitudes, cooperation, generosity, respect for the environment, systematic decision-making, and creativity. Both require the assistance of curriculum specialists or curriculum development teams.

Other alternatives include those Character Education Programs directed toward diminishing delinquency, preventing suicides, homicides, and dispelling disruptive behavior. Still other variations include building aspects of the affective domain into physical education programs, journalism courses, or using drama, literature, and the visual arts to point up human values. Another approach is to use teacher-class talk to overcome feelings of anger, anxiety, to manage thought processes among students. Beller recommends that emphasis should be placed upon unconscious elements of character formulation and subscribes to John Locke's dictum that "all education is for character formation."

Taking an entirely new stance is Harvard's Perry London who sees character disintegration as a national sickness and pleads for American schools to develop programs to arrest the psycho-social epidemics arising from the effects of family disruption, nontraditional sexual behavior, neglect, drug and alcohol abuse, murders by children, and dropping out of school. He sees these anomalies as not only personal, but social indicators. He defines character education as 1) education in civic virtue that teaches children the forms and rules of citizenship in a just society, and 2) education in personal adjustment which includes a sense of altruism, achievement, integrity, self-control, and self-esteem. In view of the epidemic proportions of misconduct, London

believes that mental health intervention on a broad scale is Character Education. Students who are drugged, drunk, depressed or anxious cannot possibly succeed in school or in society. His research strategy is to promote a national center to study the combined epidemiology, to catalogue ways to prevent or to stop the plagues which are rampant, and ultimately to evaluate clinical interventions. To curb these psycho-social maladies is what he calls "Character Education." Without this shift to a clinical viewpoint requiring guided intervention, London sees the future of society as not only bleak, but bent on a path toward destruction.

THE VALUES ANALYSIS MODEL

Values analysis is an ancient-modern structured approach grounded in argumentation theory and formal debate practice where students face controversy and learn through dialectic. Using a given proposition relating to human or national dilemmas, resolution is achieved in adversary fashion by having students take sides, as it were, as affirmative or negative proponents. A proposition is decided by the class under the direction of the teacher. The issues which give rise to the proposal can arise from current affairs, social, economic, or political concerns. The format is likely to provide students with opportunities for reflective thought, critical thinking, refutation, and adaptation. They may learn to attack problems analytically, to express themselves clearly, and to communicate thoughts extemporaneously utilizing principles of evidence and argument with zest.

The debate format actually follows John Dewey's step-wise reflective thinking strategy for problem solution: 1) Is there a need for a change from the status quo? Does a problem exist? What are the

causes of the problem? Will solutions other than the affirmative proposal solve the problem? 2) Is the affirmative proposal practical? 3) Is the affirmative proposal desirable? Decision is the final step -- will the affirmative proposal be accepted or denied?

Unlike formal debate, values analysis is non-competitive. There are no tournaments or awards, but rather a stimulating classroom format applicable to most curricula. More structured than ordinary classroom discussion, values analysis requires thorough investigation, preparation, flexibility, and good speaking habits.

Three decades ago, Senator James W. Fulbright in speaking to the Senate on the subject of American values demanded that we "test the slogans and shibboleths by free and honest discussion." And John Dewey, in the 1920's, suggested that moral rules were like castles in the air and have little relationship to everyday living: "What we need is to have these moral principles brought down to the ground through their statements in social and psychological terms....All the rest is mint, anise, and cumin."

TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF VALUES

The research literature offers many tools for the measurement of values. Those available are generally tied to probes of interests and personality, and, therefore, are heir to the pitfalls of attitude measurement. Unfortunately, sound devices are relatively scarce. The scientific criteria of validity, reliability, objectivity, and standardization are often not fully met. However, some of the instruments may be useful for classroom discussion and demonstration or for career and vocational counseling.

The following list was developed from various references on published tests and other assessment devices. In an effort to locate additional inventories appropriate for values measurement, a systematic search of the Educational Resources Information Center (E.R.I.C.), a computerized network was made. The search yielded over 1000 related studies, however, references to specific instruments were lean. Some of those appearing in the research literature are listed below. Asterisks indicate those which will be discussed briefly. ED numbers refer to E.R.I.C. identification of "unpublished" documents in the Resources in Education scan.

SELECTED INSTRUMENTS

*1. Study of Values, Gordon Allport, Phillip Vernon, and Gardner Lindzey, Riverside Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois, 1960.

*2. Ways to Live, Charles Morris, Chicago, Illinois, 1948.

*3. Differential Value Profile, W. L. Thomas, Grand Rapids, Michigan, 1963.

*4. Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Profile, Lawrence Kohlberg, 1973, 1974.

*5. Semantic Differential, Charles Osgood, 1967.

*6. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook II, Affective Domain, David Krathwohl, Benjamin Bloom, Bertram Masia, 1964.

*7. Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ),L.H. Loftquist, R.V. Dawis, Evan Gay, et al, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1971.

*8. Ohio Work Values Inventory (OWVI), Loyde Hales, B.J. Fenner, Jacqueline Waggoner, 1975.

*9. Future World Perspective Scale, David Silvernail, 1979. ED 193315

*10. Economic Values Inventory (EVI), Mary U. O'Brien, Steven Ingels, 1984.

*11. Temperament and Values Inventory (TVI), Charles Johansson, NCS Professional Assessment Services, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1977.

*12. Rokeach Value Survey, Milton Rokeach, Halgren Tests, Sunnyvale, California, 1982.

*13. Work Values Inventory (WVI), Donald Super, Riverside Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois, 1984.

*14. Analysis of Personal Values. R. W. Henderson, Painesville, Ohio, 2nd. edition, 1960.

*15. Defining Issues Test (DIT), James R. Rest, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1979.

*16. Sullivan Ethical Reasoning Scale, Arthur P. Sullivan, 1978. ED 157941

*17. Efficacy Scale for Creative Productivity (ESCREP), Gina Shack, 1986. ED 271494

*18. Environmental Issues Attitude Defensibility Inventory (EIADI), Thomas Kinsey, John Wheatley, 1980.

DISCUSSION OF SELECTED INSTRUMENTS

1. Study of Values -Gordon Allport, Philip Vernon, Gardner Lindzey

This instrument is based upon Eduard Spranger's Types of Men (1928). It was Spranger's position that people are best known by respective commitment to their evaluative attitudes. Six types of "ideal" persons are postulated: Theoretical (largely cognitive , critical, rational, systematic, intellectual); Economic (interested in what is useful and practical); Aesthetic (seeks harmony, grace, is individualistic); Social (altruistic, sympathetic, unselfish); Political (interested in power, influence, renown); Religious (mystical, seeks evidence of unity in the universe, prefers meditation, self-denial). This instrument uses the terms "values", "interests", and "attitudes" interchangeably. It can be used for high school, collegiate, and adult populations; has respective norms; is brief to complete; provides a technical manual and profile forms; has been recommended for vocational guidance and personnel work and may be useful for personality research and/or for classroom demonstration and discussion. The validity rests upon Spranger's constructs. Reliabilities range from .84 (Theoretical) to .95 (Religious).

2. "Ways to Live" -The Open Self -Charles Morris

A much earlier effort to obtain measurements of personal values was developed by Charles Morris at the University of Chicago. Morris postulated thirteen "Ways to Live". The constructs for the thirteen paths, expressed in brief paragraphs, were validated by a panel of professors, acknowledged experts in philosophy, theology, comparative religions, and social psychology. Each path is purported to be mutually exclusive of the others. Presented are the positions of Confucius, Buddha, Christ, Dionysus, Mohammed, Zoroaster, Epicurus, the beliefs of Taoism, Stoicism, and the postures of Meditation, Action, and Submission. Respondents are asked to select the one "way to live" that reflects their ideal

lifestyle. Morris used the instrument with a national sample of 1000 university students.

Even though the instrument was developed more than four decades ago, present research at Wayne State University indicates that at least two of the scales conform to Morris' findings in cross-validation. These are the Maitreyan preference--"dynamic integration of diversity", usually overwhelmingly selected by present graduate students, and the Christian position--"sympathetic concern for others", generally among the "ways" least chosen. One is reminded of Ralph Waldo Emerson's observation "In Christendom, where is the Christian?"

3. The Differential Value Profile -W.H. Thomas

Developed by W.L. Thomas, the Differential Value Profile (DVP) also appears to be based upon the Spranger theory and bears a striking resemblance to the Study of Values. It also contains six scales (aesthetic, humanitarian, intellectual, power, material, and religious). The technical manual states that the six factors emerged from a factor analysis of the data sampled from national college and university populations. This instrument contains 134 statements. Subjects respond via a 4-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree). This device profiles personal values and may be useful for guidance or research purposes. The manual indicates that the inventory has been used for differentiating among students in different types of institutions of higher learning or in secondary schools.

4. Kohlberg's Moral Judgment Scale -Lawrence Kohlberg

Based upon Kohlberg's six-stage theory, the Moral Judgment Scale presents nine moral dilemmas which the respondent is asked to evaluate and explain. The trained examiner must query the subject to determine his level of moral development. According to critics, the scale needs improvement in scoring and in sequencing, this is, apparently, underway. Research thus far demonstrates that the scale appears to discriminate between certain social groups. Kohlberg's work is without a doubt inspirational to others who seek to measure human values and is also a strong research tool.

5. Semantic Differential -Charles E. Osgood

A popular approach to the measurement of values is through Semantic Differential Analysis, a technique developed by Charles E. Osgood and colleagues at the University of Illinois, Urbana. The term "semantic differential" actually applies to a family of instruments which measure the psychological meanings that various people apply to concepts. The technique is a combination of controlled association and scaling procedures. The respondent is provided with a set of bipolar adjectives and asked to indicate the direction of association, usually on a seven-point scale. The pairs of adjectives usually fall within one of three clusters: evaluative, potency, and activity. In studies of values, the emphasis is

usually upon the evaluative factor, i.e., a "good to bad" continuum. The subject judges a concept, such as "charity" against a series of scales. Each judgment represents a selection, thus localizing the concept as a point in semantic space. The more scales that are offered, the more validly does the point represent the operational meaning of the concept. In this approach to values assessment, it is crucial to select a meaningful sample of bipolar terms. This technique ultimately lends itself to factor analysis to determine what the scales are actually measuring. Another consideration is that the bipolar pairs of adjectives must be representative of the possible ways in which judgments can vary since any given concept may mean different things to different people.

6. Taxonomy of Educational Objective Handbook II: Affective Domain (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia)

   The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Affective Domain provides a comprehensive theoretical framework as well as utility for integrating values into a given curriculum. An affective continuum is presented in step-ladder fashion through a five-phase hierarchal classification schema appropriate from elementary grades through graduate school. The main categories in ascending fashion are these: 1.0 Receiving, 2.0 Responding, 3.0 Valuing, 4.0 Organization (conceptualization of a value), and 5.0 Characterization by a Value or Value Complex. Not only is this Taxonomy logically valid, but is offers detailed definitions of the sign posts, along with sample test items and/or activities. With the aid of this device, curriculum materials can be molded to elicit overt behaviors in the classroom regardless of subject matter, thus to stretch students toward the internalization of value systems, not only personally satisfying, but compatible with the demands of a free and democratic society.

7. Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) - L.H. Loftquist, et al., 1971.

   Just under 200 items, this instrument covers six scales: achievement, altruism, safety, autonomy, and comfort. It is also available in a shorter form (1976); requires forced choice ranking of five statements in twenty-one sets; has had wide use and a great deal of research supporting its development.

8. Ohio Work Values Inventory (OWVI) -Loyde Hales et al, 1975.

   Containing 77 items, this inventory covers such features as enjoyment in work, working with ideas, self-realization, working with others, independence.

9. Future World Perspective Values Scale -David Silvernail, 1979.

   Consisting of 28 scale items, this device is designed to measure four value constructs: selective economic growth, adaptive technology, international cooperation, and world economic justice.

Factor analysis has been performed to establish the validity of the items to the constructs.

10. Economics Values Inventory (EVI) -Mary U. O'Brien and Steven Ingels, 1984.

This is an effective measuring device for assessing group changes in economic attitudes and values; was utilized in a national research study involving 35 classrooms in 18 secondary schools (inner city, suburban, rural, public, private, and parochial) in 12 cities across the country. Has strong construct validity and moderate reliability.

11. Temperament and Values Inventory (TVI) -Charles B. Johansson, 1977.

This personality inventory assesses work temperament and reward values (intrinsic and extrinsic). The personal characteristics section is intended to amplify those obtained from other vocational interest inventories; the rewards section is designed to measure an individual's work reinforcement hierarchies related to possible career choices. The device is self-administering and contains 230 items to be selected on a Likert and forced choice format; is appropriate for high school students and above, and takes only about 30 minutes to complete. Standard scores are provided in the technical manual. The psychometric properties are acceptable. Content and concurrent validities are in the low .80's; reliability studies are not strong. In fact, some validity and reliability data are ambiguous. However, the instrument is good when used in conjunction with other interest inventories such as the Strong-Campbell.

12. Rokeach Value Survey -Milton Rokeach, Halgren Tests, Sunnyvale, California, 1982.

This survey measures 36 value constructs equally divided between 18 instrumental and 18 terminal values. The instrumental values are desirable "modes of conduct"; the terminal values are "end states of existence". The Value Survey has become one of the most popular of the values measurement instruments. The Buros' Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook lists over 200 studies which have utilized this instrument, even though there remain difficult questions regarding validity and reliability.

The Instrumental Values are:
Ambitious
Broadminded
Capable
Cheerful
Clean
Courageous
Forgiving
Helpful
Honest
Imaginative
Independent

Intellectual
Logical
Loving
Obedient
Polite
Responsible
Self-controlled

The Terminal Values are:
A Comfortable Life
An Exciting Life
A Sense of Accomplishment
A World at Peace
A World of Beauty
Equality
Family Security
Freedom
Happiness
Inner Harmony
Mature Love
National Security
Pleasure
Salvation
Self-respect
Social Recognition
True Friendship
Wisdom

13. Work Values Inventory -Donald E. Super, 1984.

This instrument is designed to measure goals that motivate people to work and to influence vocational choices, career development, and occupational adjustment. This self-reporting device is easy to administer and may be used with middle school students on through adulthood. There are 45 items on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Very Important to Unimportant, and takes about 10-15 minutes to complete. The content is based upon Super's four-pronged theory of career development. The four constructs are: personal traits, values, interests, and needs, all carefully defined in the technical manual.

The fifteen work values which Super has identified are: altruism, aesthetics, creativity, intellectual stimulation, achievement, independence, prestige, management, economic returns, security, surroundings, supervisory relations, associates, a way of life, and variety. A considerable amount of research has been done on the instrument including a factor analysis to support the validity of the items as these relate to the postulated constructs. Reliability studies have been modest ranging from .74 to .88 with a median reliability of .83. Separate norms are available for males and females. In general, the instrument has excellent psychometric properties.

14. Analysis of Personal Values -R.H. Henderson, 1960.

This is a forty-item inventory covering desire for knowledge, reading preferences, study interests, inter-personal relationships, leisure-time activities, source of worry, personal goals, role models, and altruistic tendencies.

CONCLUSION

In an unpublished report entitled Values Education: Toward a More Comprehensive Approach. Jack Fraenkel defines values education as a process concerned with helping people make practical, aesthetic, and moral judgments . His report goes on to argue that the teaching of values in school is unavoidable, but that present efforts are insufficient since school people are not really certain as to what "values education" means. Fraenkel's comprehensive approach would permit students to debate and discuss issues and to offer alternatives involving cognitive, affective, and motivational goals.

America's schools seem to be torn between a value-neutral position, i.e., human behavior is different, but never right or wrong, and those who believe that there is something immutable about character, truthfulness, and sound judgment. According to Allan Bloom, University of Chicago, the criteria for assessing these desirable attributes are to be found in the great liberal arts tradition. To this conflict must be added the proponents of "cultural literacy", originated by E.D. Hirsch, Jr., University of Virginia, who has identified some 4500 words, terms, phrases which, he states, ought to be taught and learned in school.

From the standpoint of "values", educators face a murky venue--an "anything goes" philosophy versus the great thoughts from the past, both affected by a snippet approach to learning.

The evaluation and measurement component has been sketchy, weak, even rare. How do we know if values education has been successful or

not? There is much work to be done, if one is to observe Thorndike's dictum: "Whatever is, exists in some quantity and therefore can be measured!"

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